APPLICATION NOTES

FOR

SERIES 200

PHASE ANGLE VOLTMETERS

The North Atlantic Industries Series 200 Phase Angle Voltmeter is a truly unique, multifunctional instrument which will function as a sensitive voltmeter, a phase angle meter, a meter measuring in-phase signals (E cos θ), and quadrature signals (E sin θ), a phase sensitive null indicator, an impedance meter and a power factor meter.

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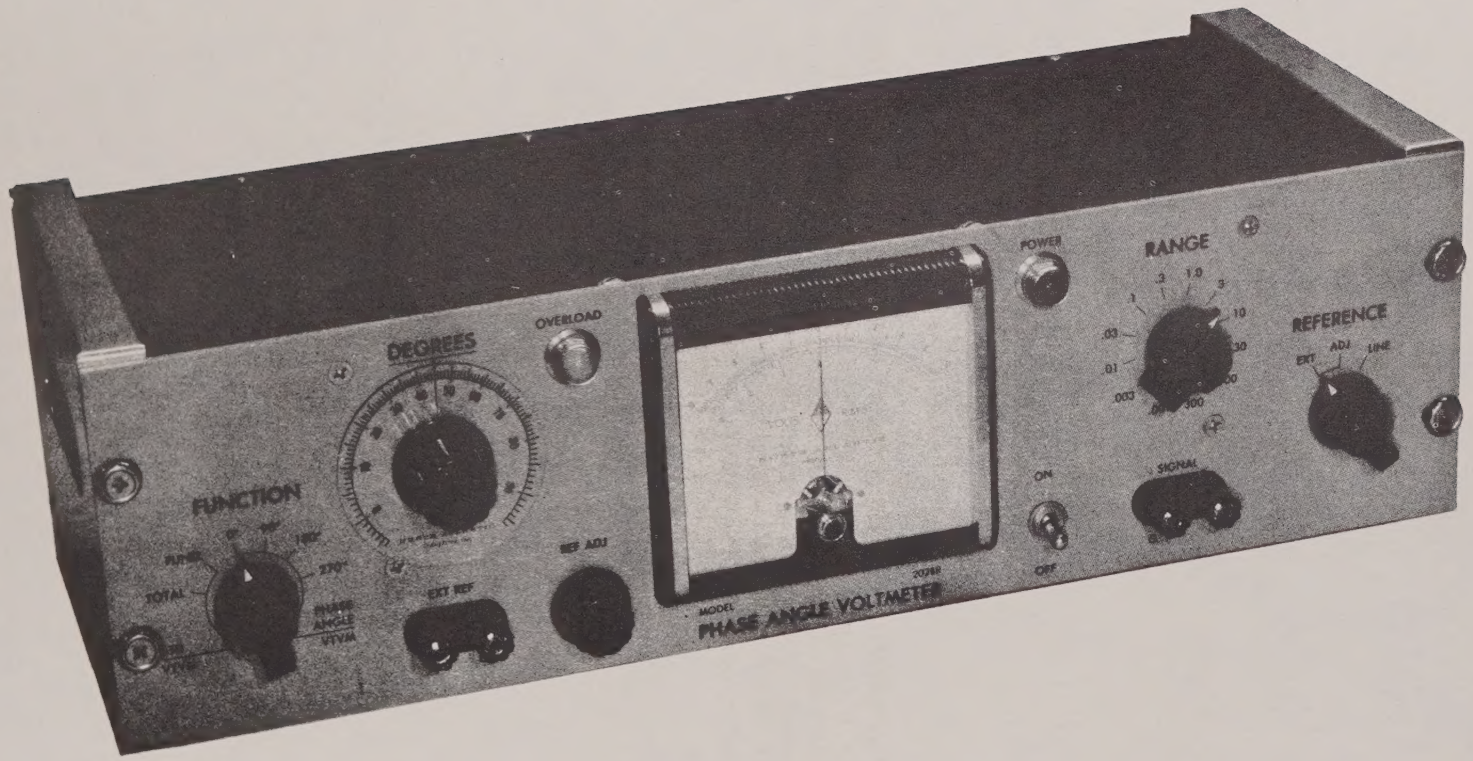

PHASE ANGLE VOLTMETER

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I-INTRODUCTION

The following notes will acquaint the user of the 200 Series Phase Angle Voltmeter with the many ways in which these versatile instruments can be used.

By virtue of the instruments ability to measure the two basic characteristics of any signal, namely magnitude and phase angle, measurements are now possible which previously either required extensive associated equipment or could not be made at all.

The principle of operation is illustrated in Figure 1.

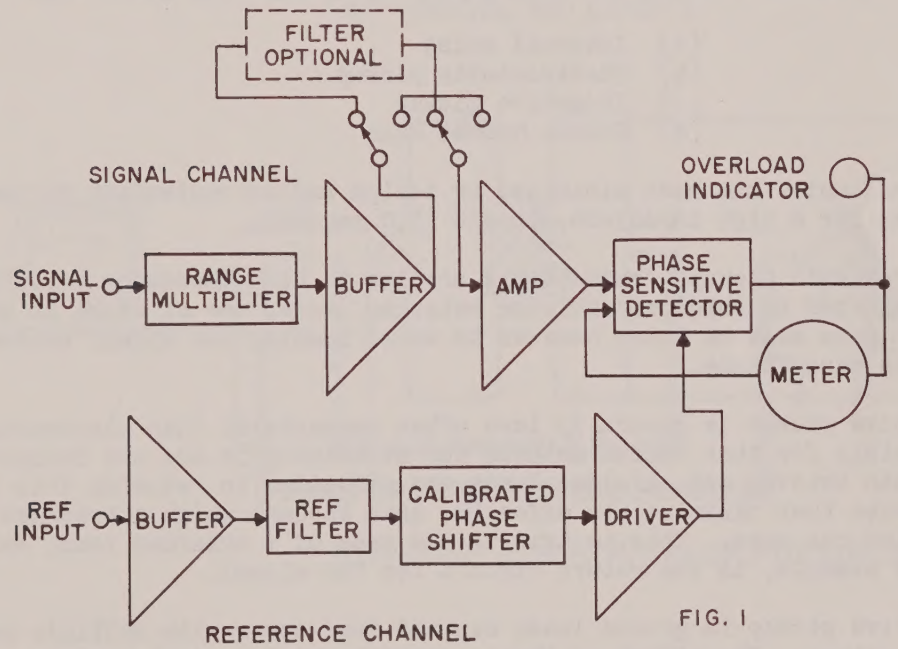


FIG. 1

An input signal is first attenuated by the range multiplier. The high gain amplifier drives a phase sensitive detector which in turn drives the indicating meter. The meter output is recombined to form an a.c. signal which is fed back to the amplifier input thus making the instrument independent of diode characteristics and tube ageing. A reference signal is also amplified and its phase angle shifted by the calibrated phase shifter. This signal driving the phase sensitive detector results in the phase angle characteristics shown in Figures 5 and 6.

The sections to follow describe the many ways in which this instrument is being used. Block diagrams illustrate typical measuring set ups.

II-GENERAL NOTES ON GROUNDING TECHNIQUES

Successful measurement with any high input impedance voltmeter is dependent upon the elimination of all unwanted or extraneous signals from the measurement circuit.

The most common sources for extraneous signals are the following:

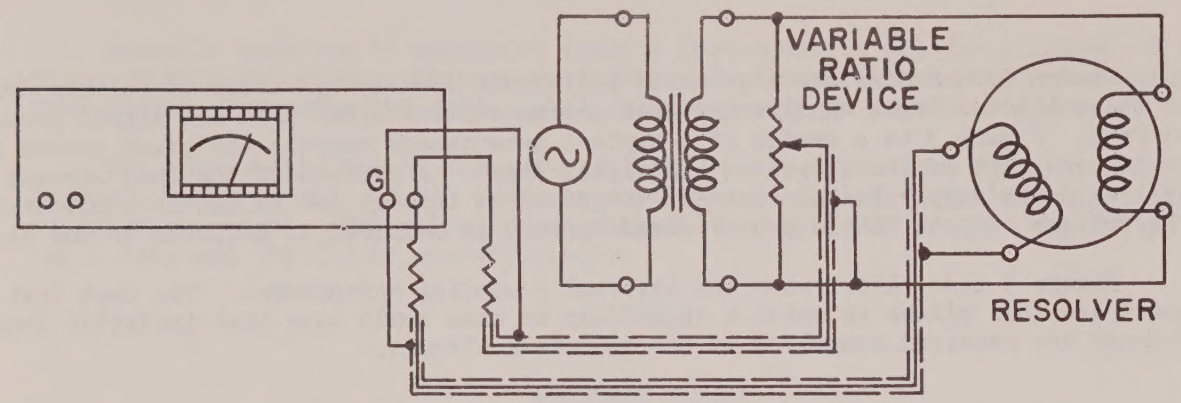
(a) Internal noise
(b) Electrostatic pickup
(c) Inductive pickup
(d) Common Ground Runs

Internal noise has been minimized by design and is equivalent to less than 5 microvolts for a high impedance circuit (1.0 megohm).

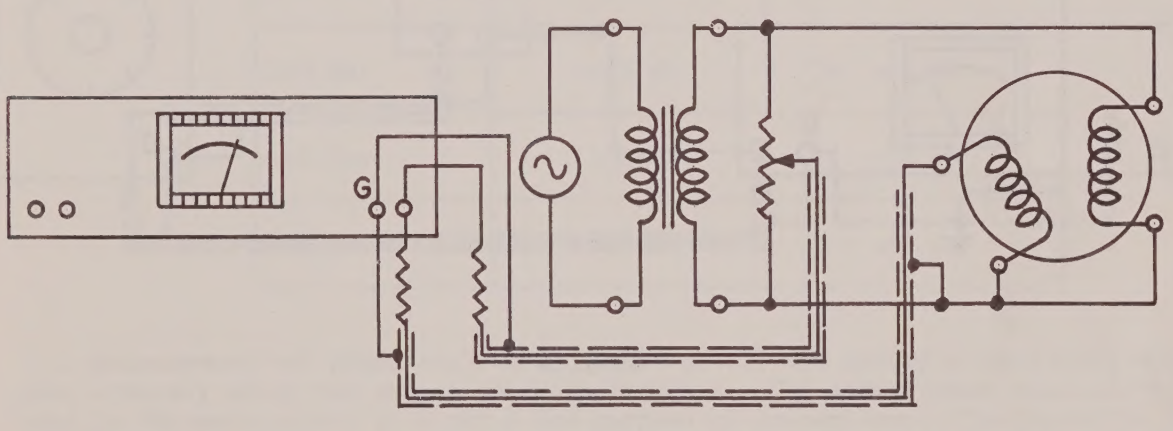
Electrostatic pickup, frequently a problem in high impedance circuits, is easily eliminated by shielded cable or twisting leads, one of which is at ground potential. Care must be taken however to avoid loading the signal source by the by the cable capacitance.

Inductive pickup is generally less often encountered than electrostatic pick-up and possibly for that reason methods for minimizing it are not frequently employed. Both twisted and shielded leads are effective in reducing this form of pickup because they minimize the effective area through which extraneous electromagnetic flux can pass. This is true in the case of a shielded lead, only if the shield, for example, is the return circuit for the signal.

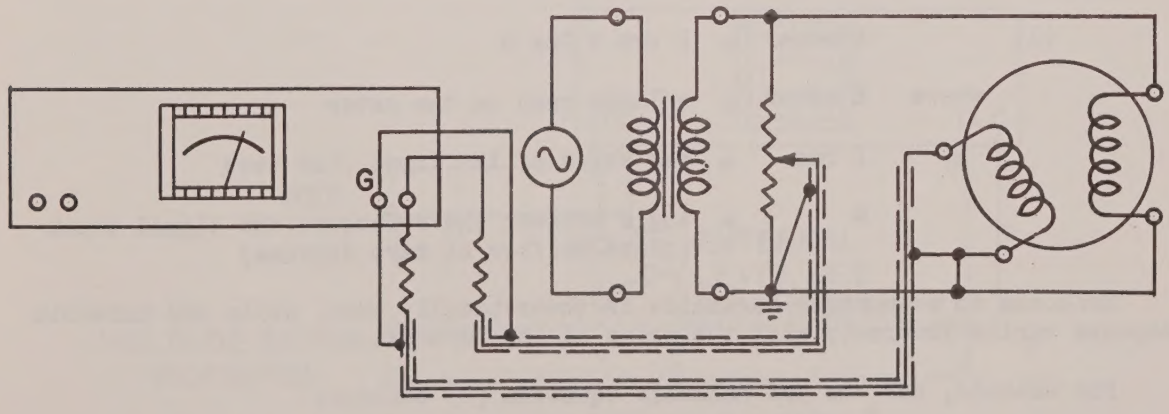
Inductive pickup in ground leads can and does occur with multiple point grounding systems. The effect of these ground loops frequently can be reduced by bundling cables together, again so as to minimize loop areas. A better method is to eliminate the ground loops altogether especially those in the signal system or that portion of a circuit where a measurement is being made. Fig. 2 shows several workable methods for using the voltmeter as a phase sensitive null detector when making transformation measurements. All methods can be made to work by minimizing stray fields and bundling cables together. However, Figure 2A is the most advantageous arrangement and is not at all critical to lead runs. Figures 2B and 2C both have loops which can be potential trouble spots. Note also that grounds other than those shown in Figure 2 can exist due to chassis contact, line cord ground and reference grounds. All must be considered when setting up the measuring system.



(a)—GOOD, NO LOOPS



(b)—ONE LOOP, PICK-UP POSSIBLE



(c)—POOR—ONE SIGNAL LOOP AND ONE GROUND LOOP

FIG. 2—RATIOMETER WITH SERIES SUMMING

Common Ground Runs are sources of extraneous signals by virtue of voltage drops in the voltmeter input which arise from ground current other than the signal ground current. Figure 3 is a sketch of a typical arrangement wherein the power ground lead is in part that of the shield on the signal input. A portion of the load current as well as power supply leakage current to ground go through the voltmeter input cable. The voltage drop in the length of common ground is measured in addition to the signal.

Figure 3 also illustrates the internal grounding arrangement. The fact that there are four places in which a ground can be made could mean that isolation transformers are required somewhere in the measuring circuit.

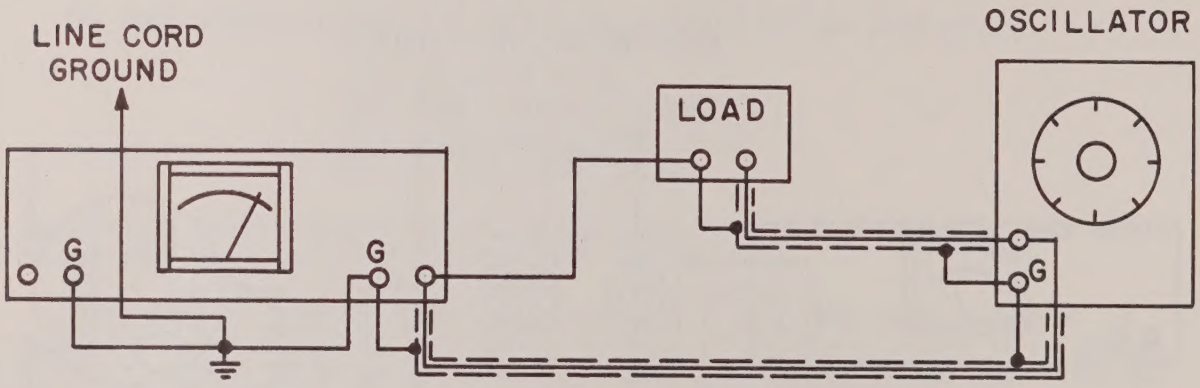


FIG. 3

III-PHASE CHARACTERISTIC

The response of the Phase Angle Voltmeter to the fundamental frequency is given by:

(1) $E_{meter} = E_{rms} \times \cos \theta$

where E_{meter} = voltage read on the meter

E_{rms} = rms value of the input sine wave

θ = angle between the reference and signal input (phase shifter at zero degrees)

Response to even order harmonics is theoretically zero, while odd harmonic response varies inversely with the order of the harmonic.

For example, for the 3rd harmonic equation (1) becomes:

$$E_{meter} = \frac{E_{rms\ (3rd\ harmonic)} \times \cos \theta'}{3}$$

where θ' is the phase angle of the 3rd harmonic with respect to the reference.

Actually response to harmonics departs from equation (2) for a number of reasons. Since calibration of the instrument is at the fundamental frequency, measurements at frequencies other than the fundamental frequency will be somewhat in error.

For instruments having selective filters in the signal and reference channels, harmonic response will in all cases be more than 55 db down. Table I shows typical measured responses. The values shown with filters actually are the sum of the column I data and the filter characteristic.

TABLE I

	RESPONSE SIGNAL	
	No Signal Filter	With Signal Filter
FUND (400 cps)	0 db	0 db
2nd Har	-55 db	> -55 db
3rd Har	-9.5 db	> -55 db
4th Har	-55 db	> -55 db
5th Har	-14 db	> -55 db

Measurements of phase angle using equation (1) are easily accomplished with good accuracy using the set-up shown in Figure 4. The actual phase characteristic used in the measurement is E sin θ for purpose of convenience. The procedure is to adjust accurately the θ = 90 deg. and the θ = 0 deg. point. Measurement then will be a voltage which can be directly translated into degrees using the curves of Figures 5 and 6.

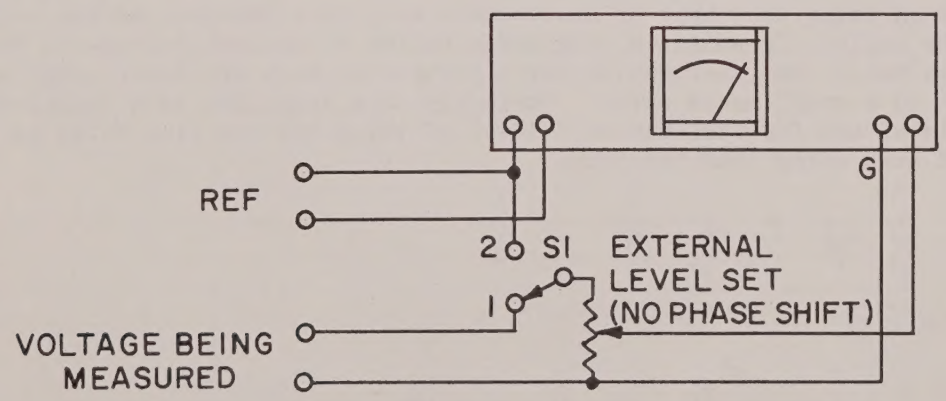


FIG. 4

The step-by-step procedure is:

1. Set reference level to red line value.

2. With meter in "STD VTVM" position and external switch S1 in position 1, select a convenient range and adjust the signal level for full scale deflection. This will insure on-scale readings. (Note: Any external level set should be sufficiently low in resistance so as not to introduce phase shift error.

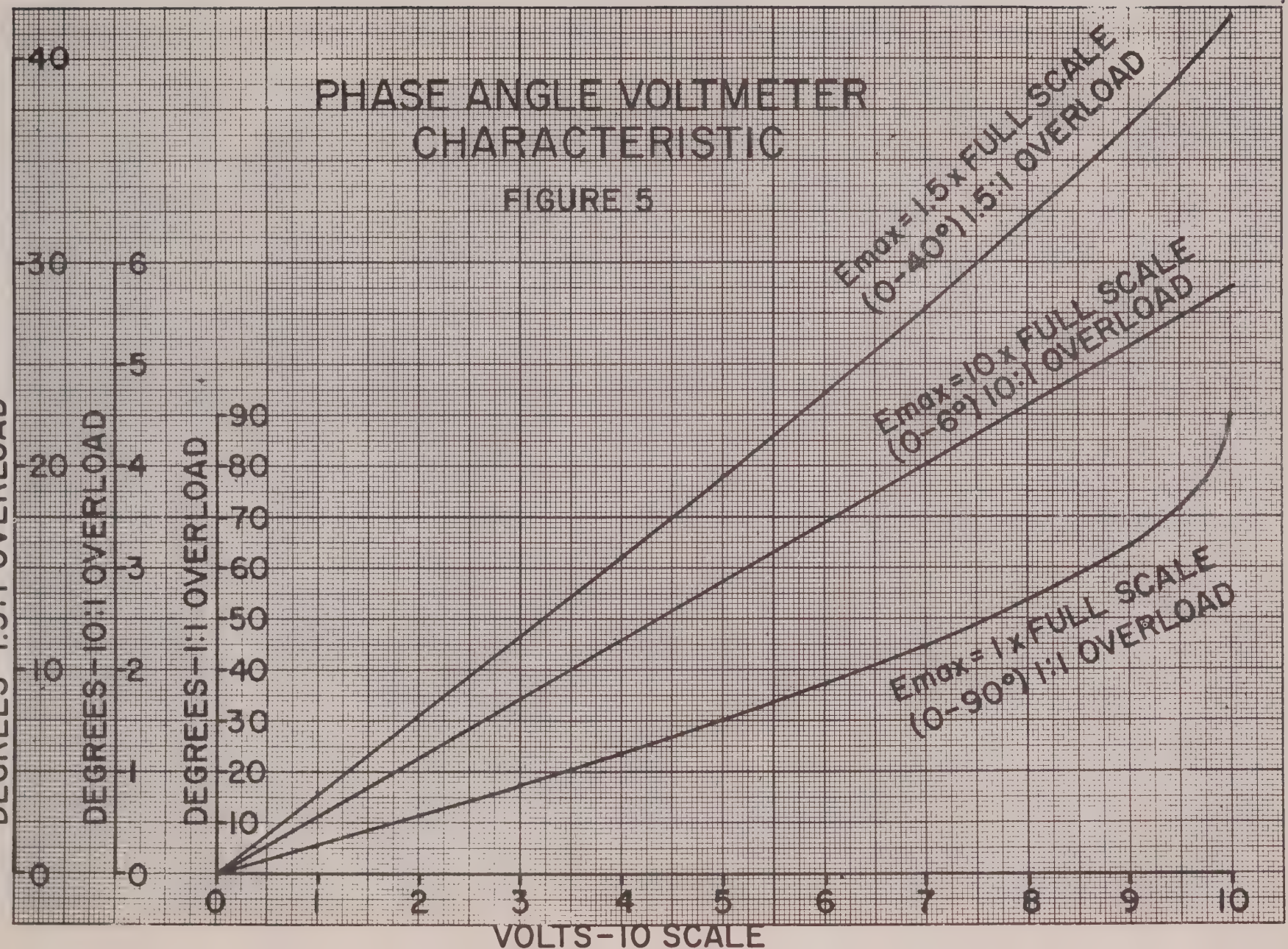
3. Next switch the reference into the signal channel by switching S1 to position 2 and adjust using the same external level control for full scale deflection. Switch the instrument to the "PHASE ANGLE VTVM" function and adjust the phase shift dial for zero meter reading. This establishes the $\theta = 0$ deg. point or quadrature null point. NOTE: FOR MAXIMUM ACCURACY THIS POINT SHOULD BE RESET WHENEVER THE SCALE IS CHANGED.

4. Return the switch S1 to the signal input and readjust the full scale level with the instrument set as "STD VTVM". This establishes the $\theta = 90$ deg. point. (E maximum).

5. Switch back to the "PHASE ANGLE VTVM" position used in (3) above and read the meter. Enter the curves of Figure 5 or 6 to read degrees.

Any full scale range in degrees can be used even down to -6°-0-$+6^{\circ}$ depending upon the full scale limits. For example, if the full scale 90 degree point is set on the 1.0 volt scale and the zero point on the 3.0 volt scale, then the 3.0 volt scale will cover a range of from -17.4 deg.-0- +17.4 deg. Table II summarizes typical set-ups and Figures 5 and 6 show curves which can easily be used to convert voltage measurements to degrees. These curves are actually arcsin functions. The angle can also be derived by direct computation from the voltage readings.

Errors in using this type of measurement will be a function of the scale used and the angle. In addition, for large ratios of maximum voltage to full scale values being used, saturation for a portion of each cycle can occur and will result in a small scale error. Obviously this condition is a function of reference level and for that reason a level of twice the red line value is recommended when using this techique.


PHASE ANGLE VOLTMETER
CHARACTERISTIC
FIGURE 5
Emax=1.5x FULL SCALE
(0-40°) 1.5:1 OVERLOAD
Emax=10x FULL SCALE
(0-6°) 10:1 OVERLOAD
Emax=1x FULL SCALE
(0-90°) 1:1 OVERLOAD
DEGREES-1.5:1 OVERLOAD
DEGREES-10:1 OVERLOAD
DEGREES-1:1 OVERLOAD
VOLTS-10 SCALE
0
10
20
30
40
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
60
50
70
80
90

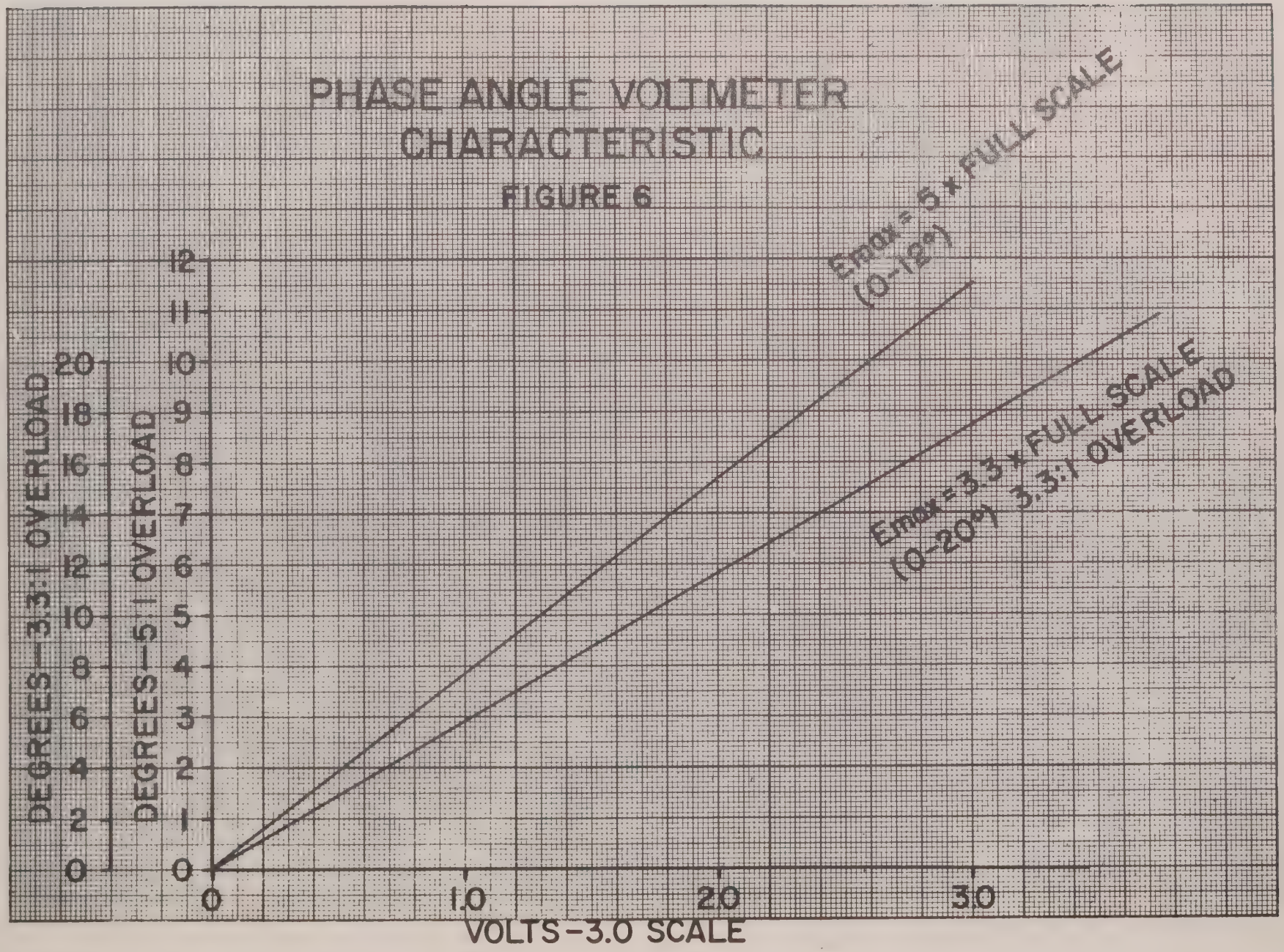

PHASE ANGLE VOLTMETER
CHARACTERISTIC
FIGURE 6
Emax = 5 x FULL SCALE
(0-12°)
Emax = 3.3 x FULL SCALE
(0-20°) 3.3:1 OVERLOAD
DEGREES—3.3:1 OVERLOAD
DEGREES—5:1 OVERLOAD
0
2
4
6
8
10
12
14
16
18
20
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
0
1.0
2.0
3.0
VOLTS—3.0 SCALE

TABLE II

Max. Voltage	Scale for meas. deg.	Full Scale Overload Ratio	Degree Range	Max. Error 3%	Figure
1.0	1.0	1:1	$\pm$ 90	2.7 deg.	5
1.0	.3	3.3:1	$\pm$ 19.5	0.6	6
1.0	.1	10:1*	$\pm$ 5.7	.2*	5
1.5	1.0	1.5:1	$\pm$ 41.8	1.3	5
1.5	.3	5:1	$\pm$ 11.5	.33	6

*NOTE: The overload alarm will be lighted when operated under these conditions. Saturation errors exist and for that reason no error rating is made.

High accuracy Phase Angle Measurements to better than .01° can be made using the alternate methods discussed in Section VIII under Small Angle Measurements.

IV-PHASE ANGLE MEASUREMENTS USING CALIBRATED PHASE SHIFTER

The built in calibrated phase shifter can be used to measure phase angle directly simply by shifting the reference by an amount equal to the phase angle being measured so as to produce a maximum meter reading in accordance with equation (1). Precise determination of the maximum point is difficult due to the zero slope of the phase characteristic at $\theta = 0$ deg. To avoid this difficulty, the instrument is equipped with four scales 90 degrees apart. Thus, by simply switching the reference 90 degrees the phase shifter dial can be readily set to a zero point on the meter and then by switching back to the original quadrant the unknown phase angle can be read.

This procedure allows the measurement of phase angles from 0 to 360 degrees. Ambiguity which exists for two quadrants is easily removed by adding 180 degrees to the dial reading if a negative maximum (meter deflection to the LEFT) is used for the measurement. For positive maximums (meter deflections to the RIGHT) the dial scales apply directly.

V-MEASUREMENT OF QUADRATURE AND IN-PHASE COMPONENTS OF A SIGNAL

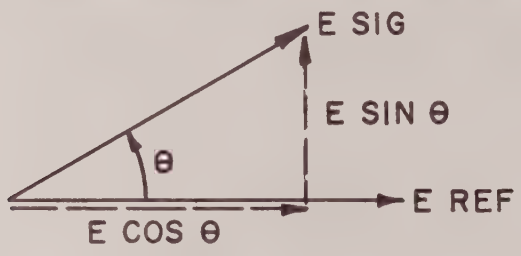


FIG. 7

The quadrature and in-phase components of a signal are defined in accordance with the diagram of Figure 7 as:

In-phase component = E cos θ

Quadrature Component = E sin θ

Measurement of the in-phase component is made by placing the Phase Angle Dial at zero degrees and reading the meter directly. This voltage will be E cos θ. (Function Selector must be in one of the PHASE ANGLE VTVM positions). By switching the Function Selector to an adjacent quadrant, the reference is shifted 90 degrees and the meter now reads the quadrature component of voltage E sin θ. For the greatest accuracy in this type of measurement the null or 90 degree point should be calibrated on the scale in which the voltage component is to be read. See the section under PHASE CHARACTERISTIC for a description of this type of adjustment.

VI-MEASUREMENT OF POWER FACTOR AND IMPEDANCE ANGLE

Both power factor and impedance angle are defined as the angle which a current vector makes with the voltage reference. This measurement is conveniently accomplished by means of the set-up shown in Figure 8. The angle is measured as previously discussed.

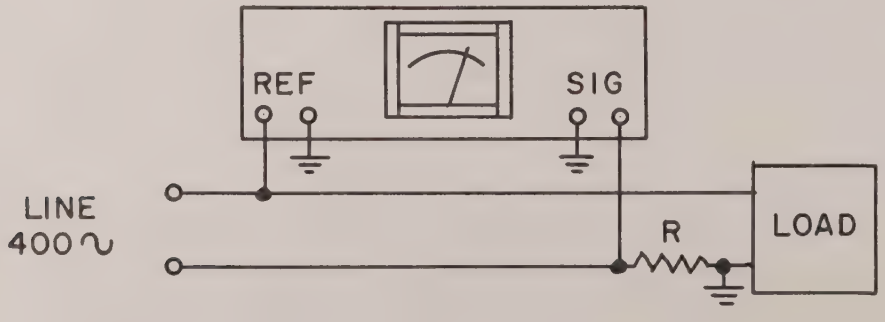


FIG. 8

VII-IMPEDANCE MAGNITUDE

The magnitude of any impedance is measured by using the "STD VTVM" portion of the instrument. Figure 9 illustrates the manner in which the measurements can be made.

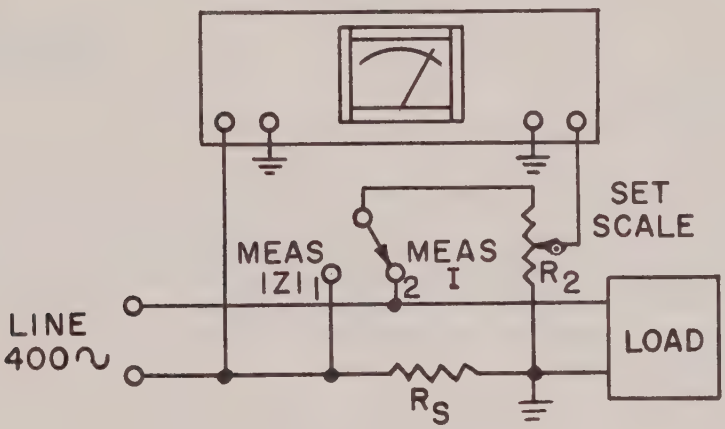


FIG. 9

Using Table III as a guide, a precision ($\pm$ 1%) resistor of convenient size is selected for Rs. With S1 in position 1 for measuring current, adjust the scale set potentiometer to read full scale volts on any 10 scale. Note the actual voltage value. Switch S1 to position 2 for measuring /Z/ and read the meter. This reading will be the impedance magnitude expressed in units of kilohms, ohms, hundreds of ohms, milliohms, etc. depending upon the value of Rs series resistance used per Table III and when divided by the current measurement noted above.

EXAMPLE

Load Impedance = 470K

Rs = 1K

E line = 115 volts

With S1 in position 1 set the level using R2 to a convenient full scale of 10. This might be 0.1 volts. Switching then to position S2 will produce a meter deflection of 47K on the 100K scale (100 volts scale is now 100K per Table III). Dividing this by the current scale of 0.1 will yield 470K. Since the current factor is always set at a multiple of 10, this last correction is simple to accomplish.

TABLE III

Series Resistor	Scale 1 Volt Equals	Current Factor
10K	10K	1/volts
1K	1K	"
100 ohms	100 ohms	"
10 ohms	10 ohms	"
1 ohm	1 ohm	"

Measurement of A.C. Resistance and Reactance

By using the circuit of Figure 9 the real and imaginary components of the impedance can also be measured directly by using the current as a referency and measuring the in-phase and quadrature components of the signal measured with the switch in position 2. The in-phase component will be the A.C. Resistance and the quadrature component will be the reactance with the sign determined as positive for a right hand meter deflection and negative for a left hand deflection.

The following series of block diagrams will illustrate how this instrument can be applied to some of the specific applications noted earlier.

VIII-APPLICATIONS

Precision Ratiometer

In many analogue computer systems the process of multiplication, division, addition and subtraction is accomplished using precision potentiometers, or resistors. Those applications involving extremes of precision must be concerned with the distributed capacitance of the circuit element. Ordinary nulling system, for example, will not permit the manufacture of very precise resistors because of the errors masked by quadrature signals. The circuit of Figure 10 permits precise zeroing of pots or matching and calibration of resistors and potentiometers independent of stray capacitances, or harmonics in the signal source.

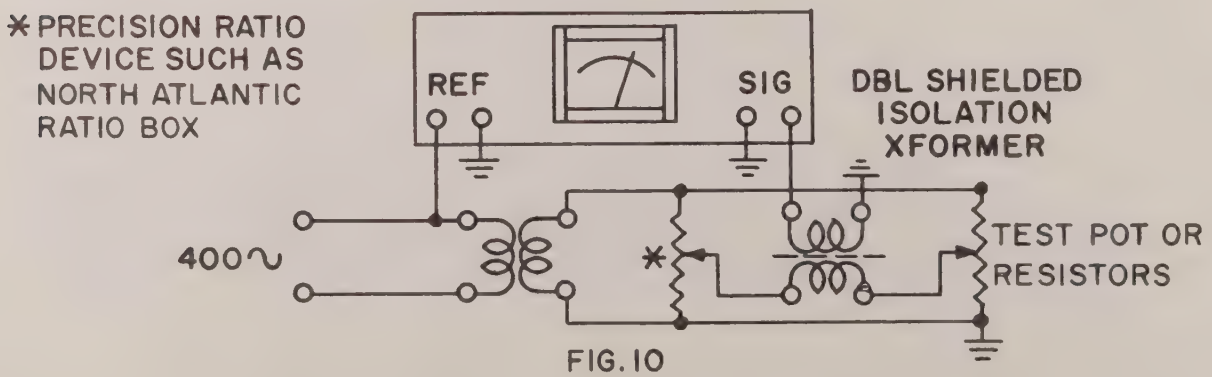


FIG. 10

Two isolation transformers are actually not necessary. If the source is to be isolated then an inexpensive transformer can be used. If the outputs are to be isolated then a low capacitance transformer such as a North Atlantic T-110 should be used. An alternate arrangement would be the circuit of Figure 11, which uses a summing network.

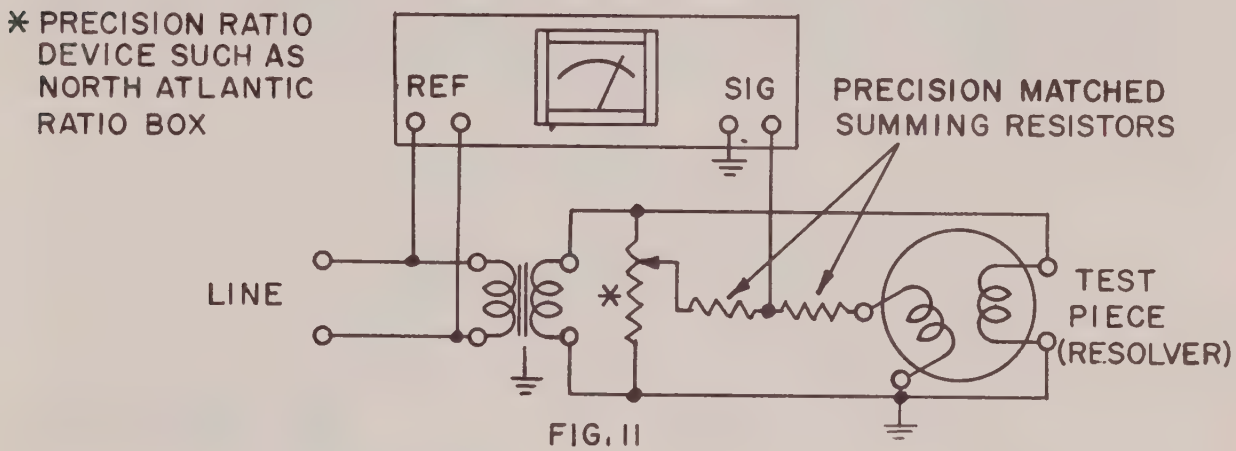


FIG. 11

Transducer Nulling

Applications involving transducers such as differential transformers or E-Coil pickoffs are extremely difficult to zero due to the large residual null voltage composed of signal and harmonics from the source as well as harmonics generated in the transducer. Figure 12 shows a system in which a precise in-phase balance can be achieved in the presence of quadrature and harmonics equal to 10 times the full scale sensitivity used. An order greater accuracy in nulling is easily achieved over conventional nulling circuits.

In addition, phase compensation for servo systems or for purposes of linearity compensation are easily accomplished using variations of this same test set-up.

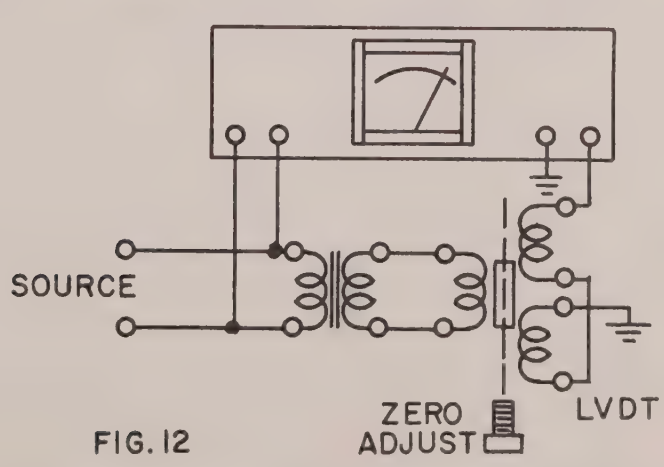


FIG. 12

Synchro Bridge Null Detector

When measuring the electrical errors of synchros, a circuit such as that shown in Figure 13 is used. The phase sensitive characteristics of the Phase Angle Voltmeter as well as the harmonic rejection of the filters and detector makes possible precision nulls unobtainable by conventional instrumentation.

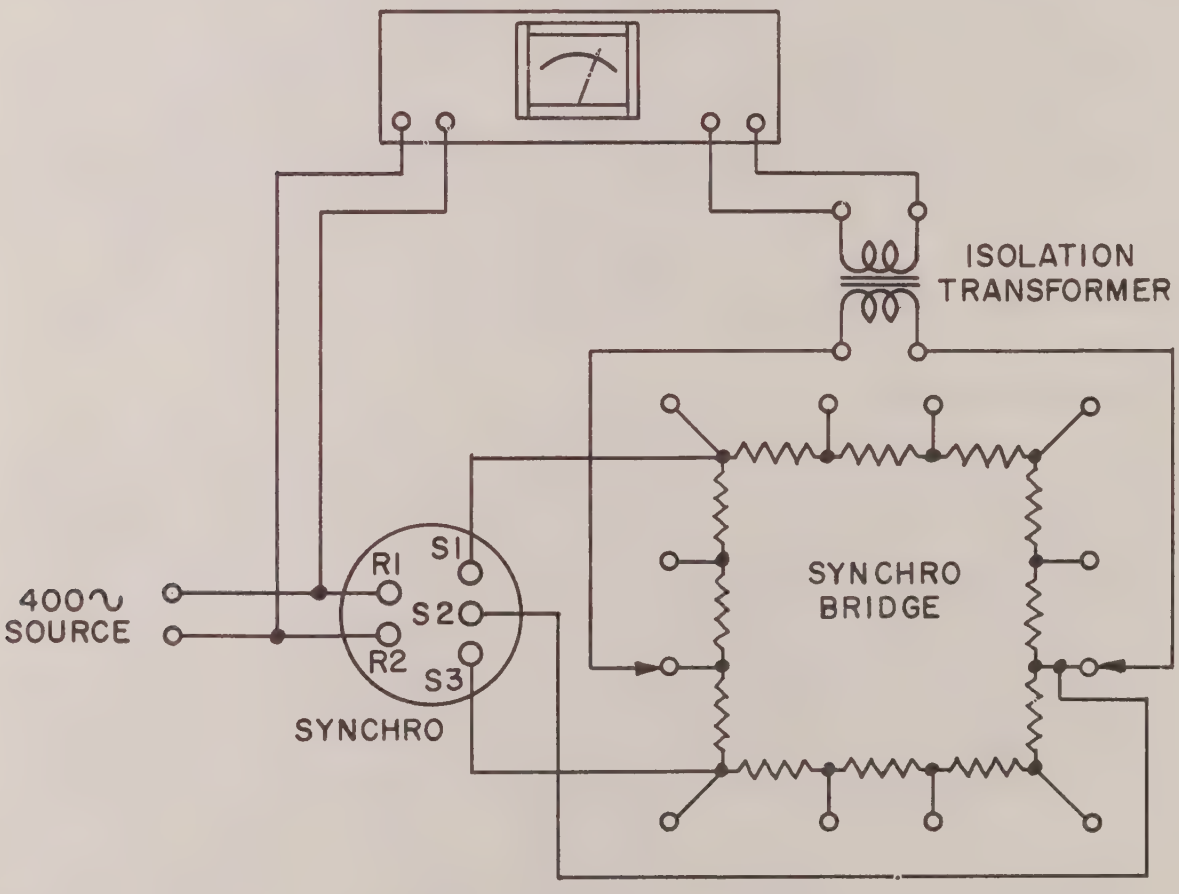


FIG. 13

Magnetic Amplifier and Thyratron Circuit Alignment

Circuits using thyratron power stages or magnetic amplifier stages cannot be monitored using conventional instruments because measurement errors can be prohibitively large due to the chopped wave forms. If the Phase Angle Voltmeter is used to monitor the output of such devices as shown in Figure 14, the task of alignment for maximum torque or output is straight forward since the meter reading is equivalent to motor output.

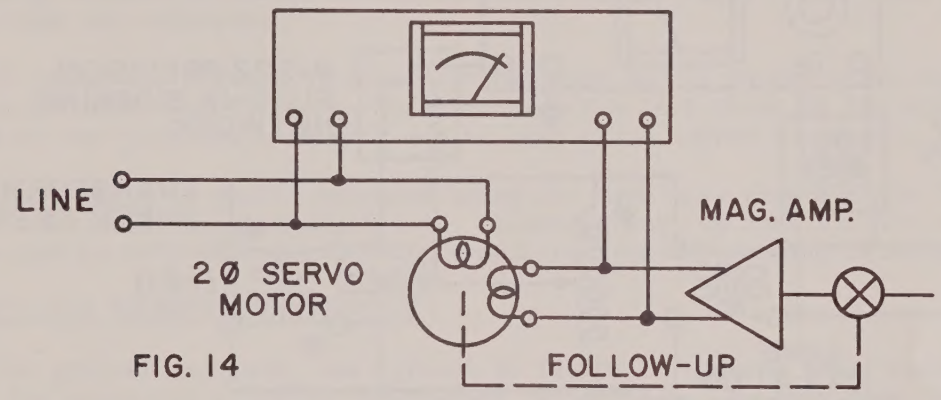


FIG. 14

Carrier Circuits and Amplifiers

Circuits such as those used for phase compensation, summing circuits, amplifiers, etc. must frequently be aligned to reduce quadrature effect to an acceptable minimum and to establish transfer functions at precise values of Phase Angles. Figure 15 is a test set-up used to check the phase angle transfer characteristic of a 400 cps carrier amplifier. Switch, S1, is used to adjust exactly the 90 degree point. A precision of trim to a fraction of a degree can be obtained.

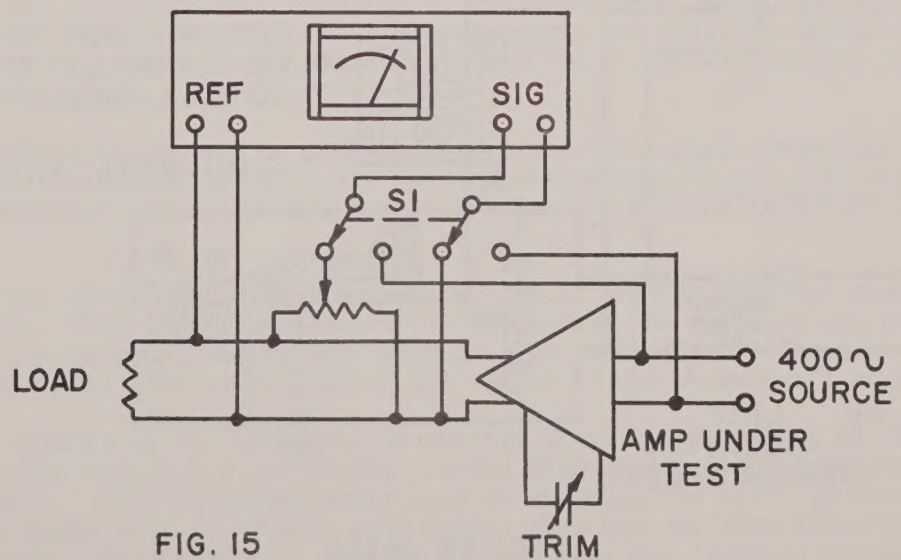


FIG. 15

TRANSFORMATION RATIO

Numerous circuit arrangements are used in making transformation ratio measurements. Two of the most practical are shown in Figure 16 (a) and 16 (b).

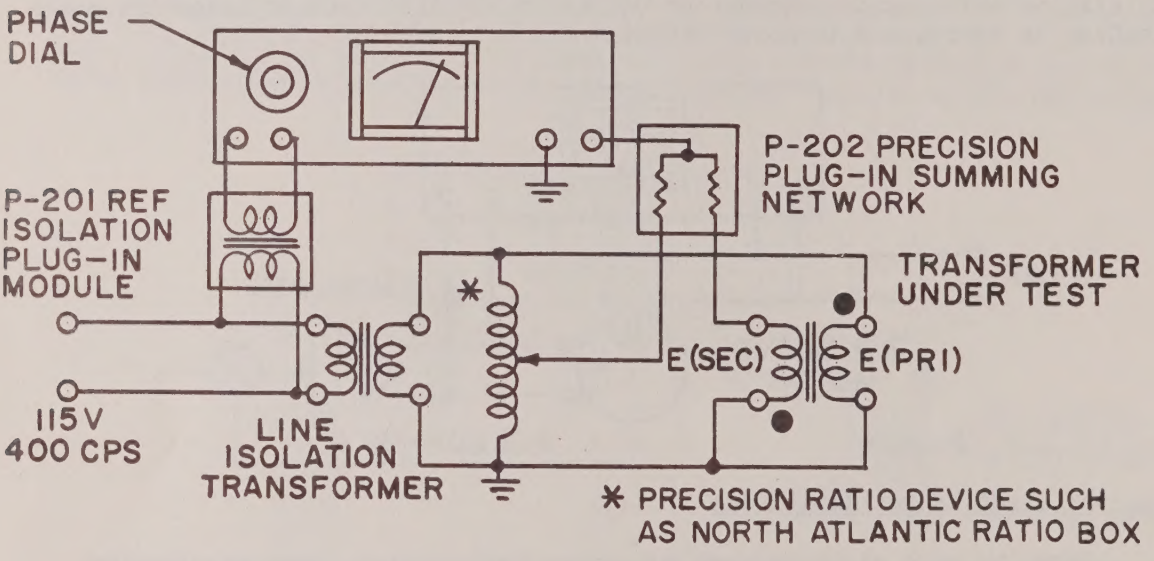


FIGURE 16(a)

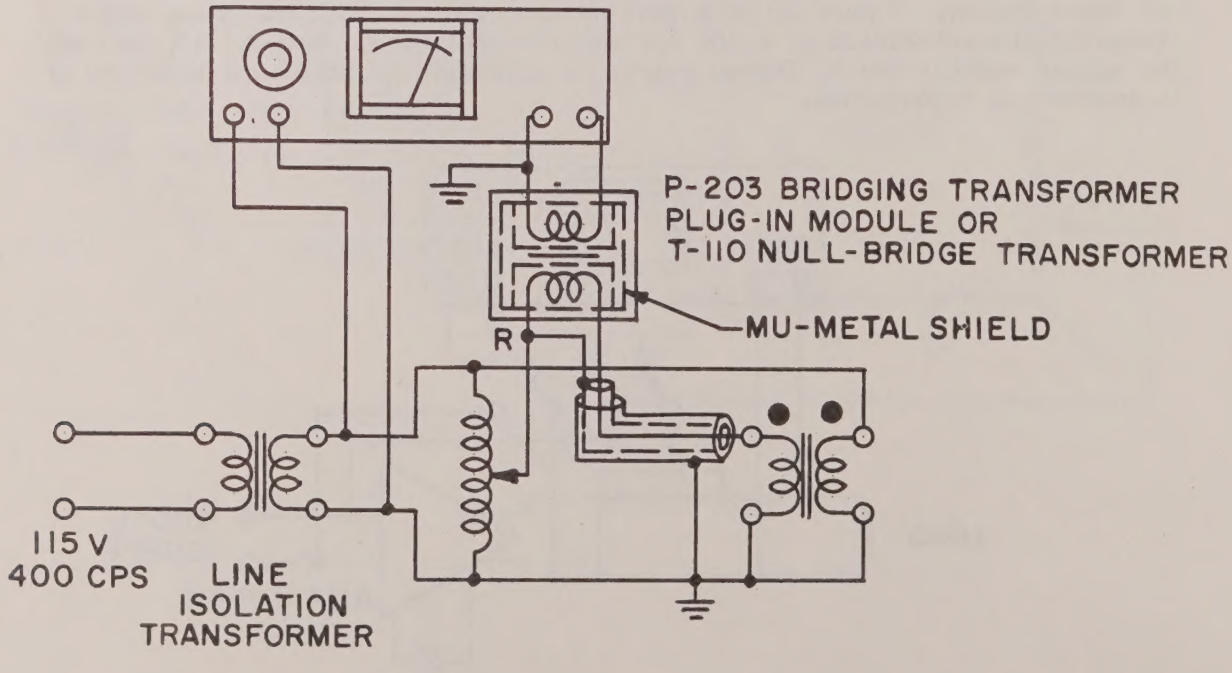


FIGURE 16(b)

I. SUMMING NETWORK TECHNIQUE

In Figure 16 (a) the output of the test piece is arranged to have a polarity opposite to that of the ratio device. By means of precision summing resistors - available from NORTH ATLANTIC as the P202 PLUG-IN SUMMARY MODULES, the outputs are added. At null the ratio device will then read the in-phase ratio of the item under test. In this particular test set up a line isolation transformer is utilized so as to avoid grounding one side of the line. For illustrative purposes the NORTH ATLANTIC P-201 PLUG-IN REFERENCE ISOLATION MODULE is also shown as providing circuit isolation on the reference input. This feature can also be built into the voltmeter.

In using the circuit of Figure 16 (a) care should be exercised in evaluating the errors which can arise due to loading of the test piece by the summing resistors and inaccurate summing due to test piece source impedance.

Phase angle is easily measured using the technique shown in the following section for small angle measurement. Allowance must be made in this case for the 2:1 change in voltmeter sensitivity resulting from the summing network.

II. BRIDGING TRANSFORMER TECHNIQUE

For greater accuracy, the circuit of Figure 16 (b) has found wide acceptance where the requisite polarity arrangement is feasible. In this case, matching of the test piece output to the ratio device is achieved by using a bridging transformer. A NORTH ATLANTIC P203 BRIDGING TRANSFORMER MODULE is shown, although any good double-shielded isolation transformer with suitable common mode rejection and low input capacitance would suffice.

Measurement errors in Figure 16 (b) can occur due to capacitive loading of the test piece or capacitive coupling of the common mode signal into the secondary. The former can be minimized where shielded cables are used by using the so called "driven shield" technique shown in the figure.

Common mode rejection is a function of the transformer shielding, the impedance level of each input to the transformer and the relative values of these impedances. Each set up must be judged by itself as to its suitability for a particular measurement.

Phase angle again is easily measured using the small angle measuring technique shown in the following section. Here allowance must be made for the bridging transformer transformation ratio (1:1 for the NORTH ATLANTIC P203 MODULE).

Both of the above measuring systems are used to provide a direct reading of in-phase ratio. Transformation ratio is by definition the ratio of the absolute magnitude of the secondary to primary voltage. To obtain "transformation ratio" the "in-phase" ratio must be divided by the cosine of the phase shift angle.

Maximum accuracies for both set-ups require that the phase dial be adjusted to compensate for residual phase shifts arising from the various transformers in the system, etc.. This is conveniently done by stepping the ratio device and adjusting the phase dial to produce zero output when the function selector is in the 90° position. Operation will then be correct when the function selector is returned to the 0° position.

Small Angle Measurements

Small angle measurements to better than .01° can also be made using the set ups of Figure 16. The process consists of making the in-phase null, described in the foregoing, using the precision ratio device. Then, by definition the phase shift angle α is:

$$\alpha = \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{\text{E Input (quadrature)}}{|\text{E sec}|} = \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{\text{E Input (quadrature)}}{|\text{E pri}| \times \text{Ratio}}$$

By measuring the magnitude of the secondary voltage and the quadrature component of the input signal, the angle α can be determined.

For Example:

Measured quadrature = 30.0 millivolts

Secondary voltage = 30 volts

$$\alpha = \text{Tan}^{-1} \frac{0.03}{30}$$

$$\cong \frac{0.03}{30} = 0.001 \text{ Rad}$$

$$\equiv 0.001 \times 57.3 = .057 \text{ degrees}$$

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